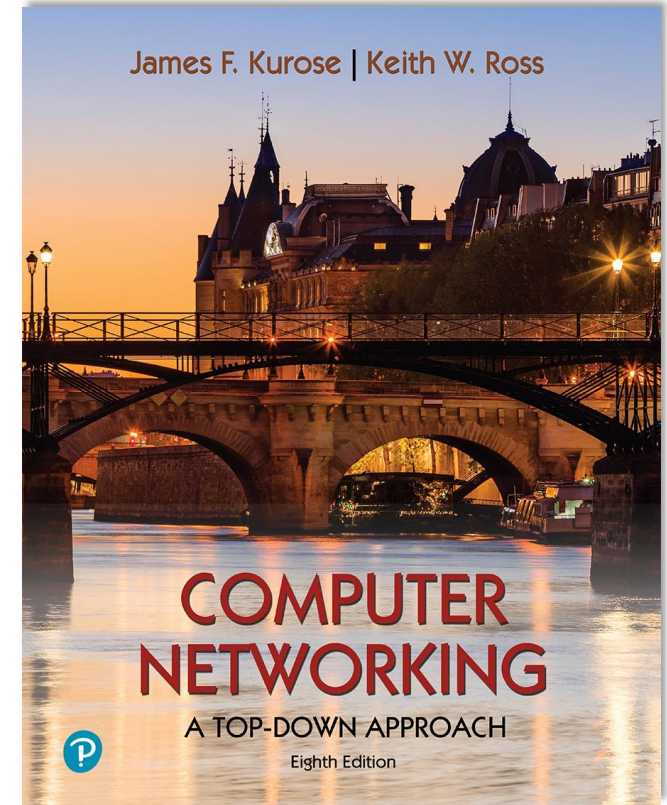


Chapter 8

Security



Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach

8th edition

Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Pearson, 2020

Security: overview

Chapter goals:

- understand principles of network security:
 - cryptography and its *many* uses beyond “confidentiality”
 - authentication
 - message integrity
- security in practice:
 - firewalls and intrusion detection systems
 - security in application, transport, network, link layers

Chapter 8 outline

- What is network security?
- Principles of cryptography
- Message integrity, authentication
- Securing e-mail
- Securing TCP connections: TLS
- Network layer security: IPsec
- Security in wireless and mobile networks
- Operational security: firewalls and IDS



What is network security?

confidentiality: only sender, intended receiver should “understand” message contents

- sender encrypts message
- receiver decrypts message

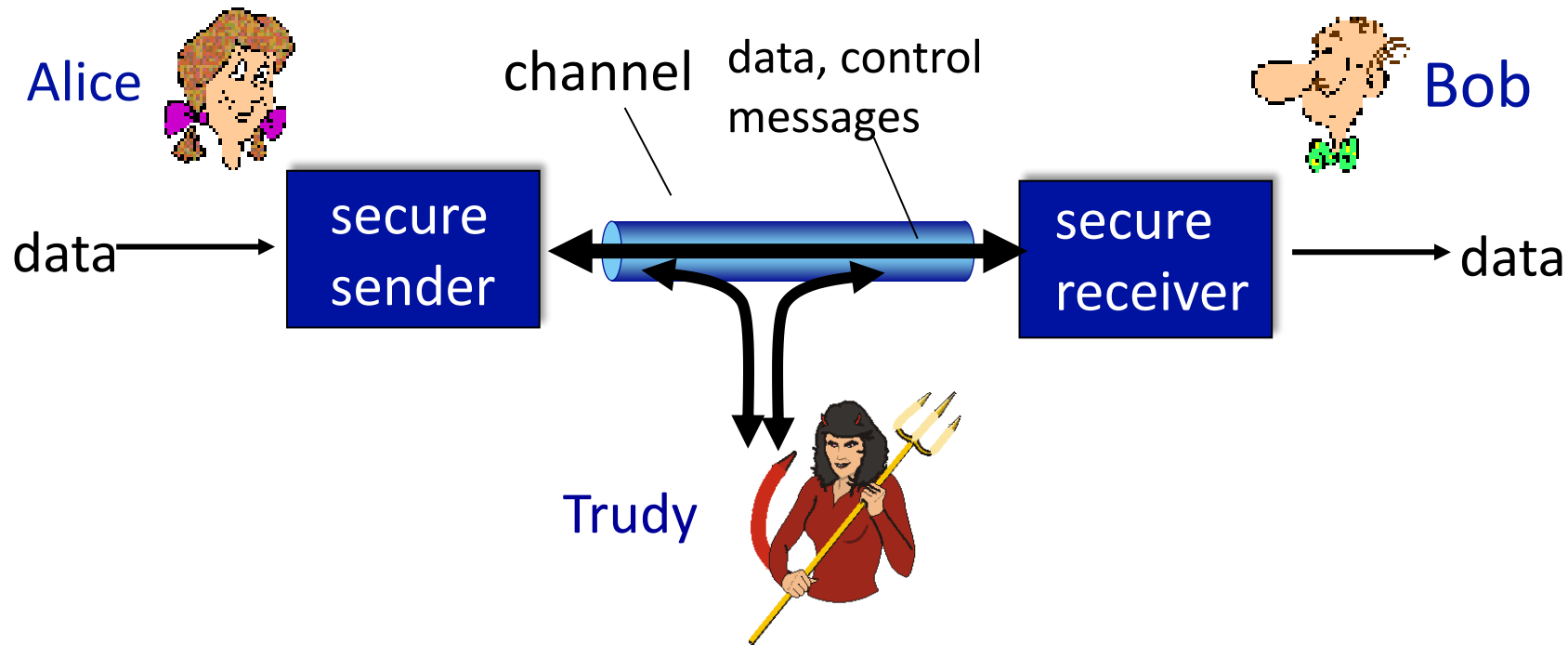
authentication: sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other

message integrity: sender, receiver want to ensure message not altered (in transit, or afterwards) without detection

access and availability: services must be accessible and available to users

Friends and enemies: Alice, Bob, Trudy

- well-known in network security world
- Bob, Alice (lovers!) want to communicate “securely”
- Trudy (intruder) may intercept, delete, add messages



Friends and enemies: Alice, Bob, Trudy

Who might Bob and Alice be?

- ... well, *real-life* Bobs and Alices!
- Web browser/server for electronic transactions (e.g., on-line purchases)
- on-line banking client/server
- DNS servers
- BGP routers exchanging routing table updates
- other examples?

There are bad guys (and girls) out there!

Q: What can a “bad guy” do?

A: A lot! (recall section 1.6)

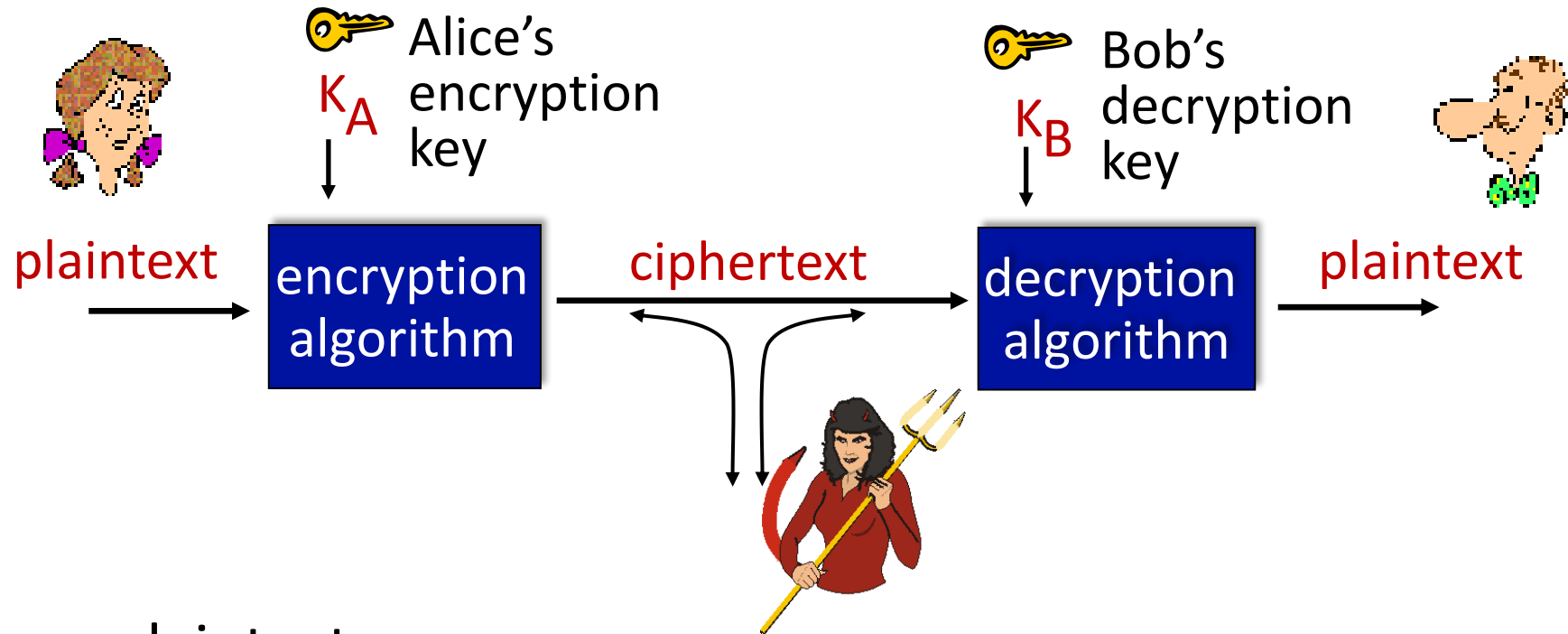
- **eavesdrop**: intercept messages
- actively **insert** messages into connection
- **impersonation**: can fake (spoof) source address in packet (or any field in packet)
- **hijacking**: “take over” ongoing connection by removing sender or receiver, inserting himself in place
- **denial of service**: prevent service from being used by others (e.g., by overloading resources)

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The language of cryptography



m : plaintext message

$K_A(m)$: ciphertext, encrypted with key K_A

$m = K_B(K_A(m))$

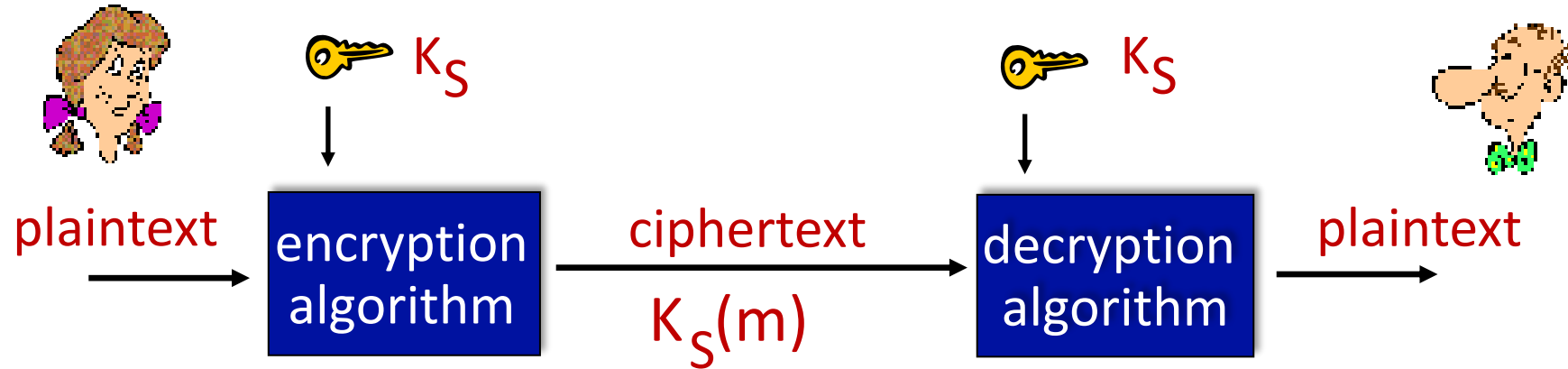
Breaking an encryption scheme

- **cipher-text only attack:**
Trudy has ciphertext she can analyze

- **two approaches:**
 - brute force: search through all keys
 - statistical analysis

- **known-plaintext attack:**
Trudy has plaintext corresponding to ciphertext
 - *e.g.*, in monoalphabetic cipher, Trudy determines pairings for a,l,i,c,e,b,o,
- **chosen-plaintext attack:**
Trudy can get ciphertext for chosen plaintext

Symmetric key cryptography



symmetric key crypto: Bob and Alice share same (symmetric) key: K

- e.g., key is knowing substitution pattern in mono alphabetic substitution cipher

Q: how do Bob and Alice agree on key value?

Simple encryption scheme

substitution cipher: substituting one thing for another

- monoalphabetic cipher: substitute one letter for another

plaintext:	abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
	↓ ↓
ciphertext:	mnbvcxzasdfghjklpoiuytrewq

e.g.: Plaintext: bob. i love you. alice
ciphertext: nkn. s gktc wky. mgsbc

🔑 *Encryption key*: mapping from set of 26 letters
to set of 26 letters

A more sophisticated encryption approach

- n substitution ciphers, M_1, M_2, \dots, M_n
 - cycling pattern:
 - e.g., $n=4$: M_1, M_3, M_4, M_3, M_2 ; M_1, M_3, M_4, M_3, M_2 ; ..
 - for each new plaintext symbol, use subsequent substitution pattern in cyclic pattern
 - dog: d from M_1 , o from M_3 , g from M_4
- 🔑 **Encryption key:** n substitution ciphers, and cyclic pattern
- key need not be just n-bit pattern

Symmetric key crypto: DES

DES: Data Encryption Standard

- US encryption standard [NIST 1993]
- 56-bit symmetric key, 64-bit plaintext input
- block cipher with cipher block chaining
- how secure is DES?
 - DES Challenge: 56-bit-key-encrypted phrase decrypted (brute force) in less than a day
 - no known good analytic attack
- making DES more secure:
 - 3DES: encrypt 3 times with 3 different keys

AES: Advanced Encryption Standard

- symmetric-key NIST standard, replaced DES (Nov 2001)
- processes data in 128 bit blocks
- 128, 192, or 256 bit keys
- brute force decryption (try each key) taking 1 sec on DES, takes 149 trillion years for AES

Public Key Cryptography

symmetric key crypto:

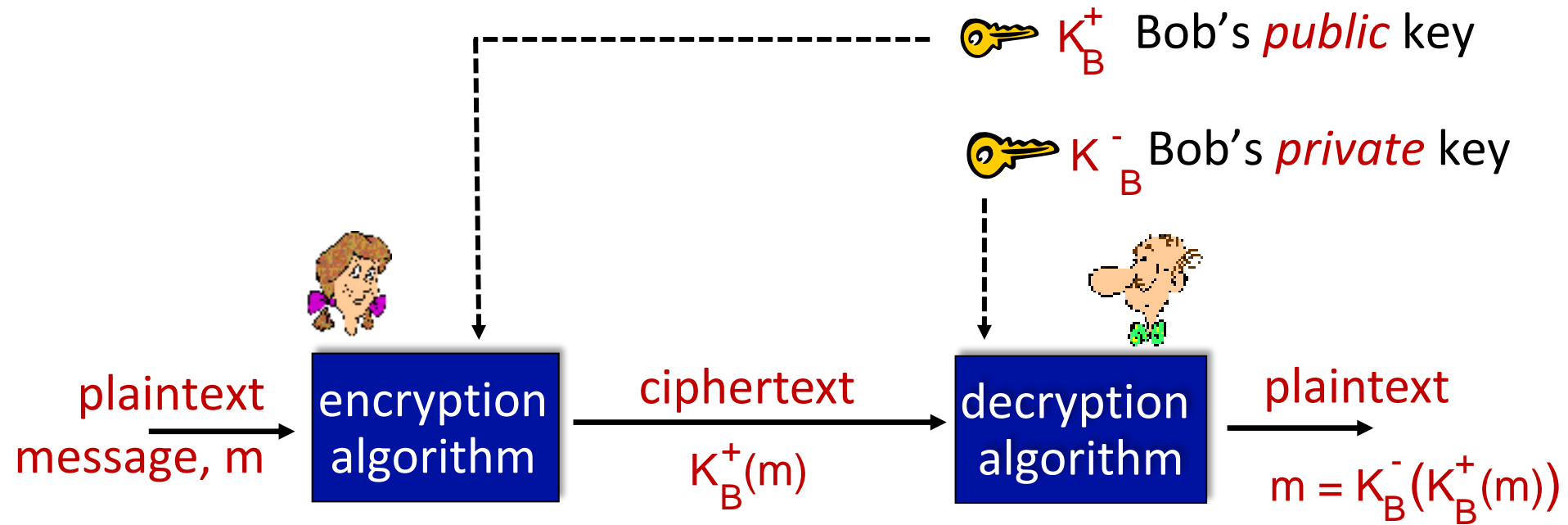
- requires sender, receiver know shared secret key
- Q: how to agree on key in first place (particularly if never “met”)?

public key crypto

- *radically* different approach [Diffie-Hellman76, RSA78]
- sender, receiver do *not* share secret key
- *public* encryption key known to *all*
- *private* decryption key known only to receiver



Public Key Cryptography



Wow - public key cryptography revolutionized 2000-year-old (previously only symmetric key) cryptography!

- similar ideas emerged at roughly same time, independently in US and UK (classified)

Public key encryption algorithms

requirements:

① need $K_B^+(\cdot)$ and $K_B^-(\cdot)$ such that

$$K_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m$$

② given public key K_B^+ , it should be impossible to compute private key K_B^-

RSA: Rivest, Shamir, Adelson algorithm

Prerequisite: modular arithmetic

- $x \bmod n$ = remainder of x when divide by n

- facts:

$$[(a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a+b) \bmod n$$

$$[(a \bmod n) - (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a-b) \bmod n$$

$$[(a \bmod n) * (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a*b) \bmod n$$

- thus

$$(a \bmod n)^d \bmod n = a^d \bmod n$$

- example: $x=14$, $n=10$, $d=2$:

$$(x \bmod n)^d \bmod n = 4^2 \bmod 10 = 6$$

$$x^d = 14^2 = 196 \quad x^d \bmod 10 = 6$$

RSA: getting ready

- message: just a bit pattern
- bit pattern can be uniquely represented by an integer number
- thus, encrypting a message is equivalent to encrypting a number

example:

- $m = 10010001$. This message is uniquely represented by the decimal number 145.
- to encrypt m , we encrypt the corresponding number, which gives a new number (the ciphertext).

RSA: Creating public/private key pair

1. choose two large prime numbers p, q . (e.g., 1024 bits each)
2. compute $n = pq$, $z = (p-1)(q-1)$
3. choose e (with $e < n$) that has no common factors with z (e, z are “relatively prime”).
4. choose d such that $ed-1$ is exactly divisible by z . (in other words: $ed \bmod z = 1$).
5. *public* key is (n, e) . *private* key is (n, d) .
 $\underbrace{(n, e)}_{K_B^+}$ $\underbrace{(n, d)}_{K_B^-}$

RSA: encryption, decryption

0. given (n, e) and (n, d) as computed above
1. to encrypt message $m (< n)$, compute
$$c = m^e \bmod n$$
2. to decrypt received bit pattern, c , compute
$$m = c^d \bmod n$$

magic happens!

$$m = \underbrace{(m^e \bmod n)}_c^d \bmod n$$

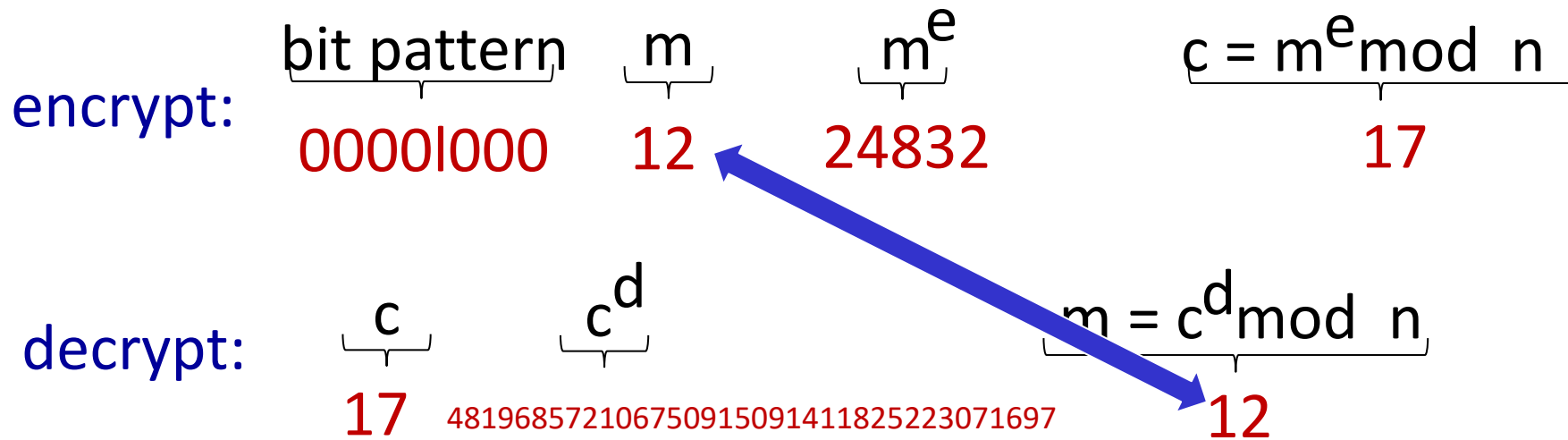
RSA example:

Bob chooses $p=5$, $q=7$. Then $n=35$, $z=24$.

$e=5$ (so e , z relatively prime).

$d=29$ (so $ed-1$ exactly divisible by z).

encrypting 8-bit messages.



Why does RSA work?

- must show that $c^d \bmod n = m$, where $c = m^e \bmod n$
- fact: for any x and y : $x^y \bmod n = x^{(y \bmod z)} \bmod n$
 - where $n = pq$ and $z = (p-1)(q-1)$
- thus,
$$\begin{aligned} c^d \bmod n &= (m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n \\ &= m^{ed} \bmod n \\ &= m^{(ed \bmod z)} \bmod n \\ &= m^1 \bmod n \\ &= m \end{aligned}$$

RSA: another important property

The following property will be *very* useful later:

$$\underbrace{K_B^-(K_B^+(m))}_{\text{use public key first, followed by private key}} = m = \underbrace{K_B^+(K_B^-(m))}_{\text{use private key first, followed by public key}}$$

use public key
first, followed
by private key

use private key
first, followed
by public key

result is the same!

Why $K_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m = K_B^+(K_B^-(m))$?

follows directly from modular arithmetic:

$$\begin{aligned}(m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n &= m^{ed} \bmod n \\ &= m^{de} \bmod n \\ &= (m^d \bmod n)^e \bmod n\end{aligned}$$

Why is RSA secure?

- suppose you know Bob's public key (n,e) . How hard is it to determine d ?
- essentially need to find factors of n without knowing the two factors p and q
 - fact: factoring a big number is hard

RSA in practice: session keys

- exponentiation in RSA is computationally intensive
- DES is at least 100 times faster than RSA
- use public key crypto to establish secure connection, then establish second key – symmetric session key – for encrypting data

session key, K_s

- Bob and Alice use RSA to exchange a symmetric session key K_s
- once both have K_s , they use symmetric key cryptography

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Authentication

Goal: Bob wants Alice to “prove” her identity to him

Protocol ap1.0: Alice says “I am Alice”



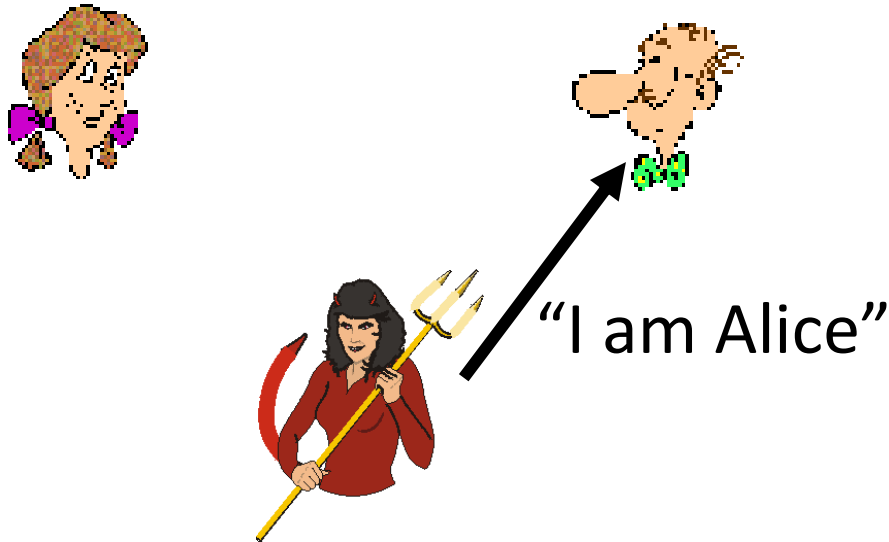
failure scenario??



Authentication

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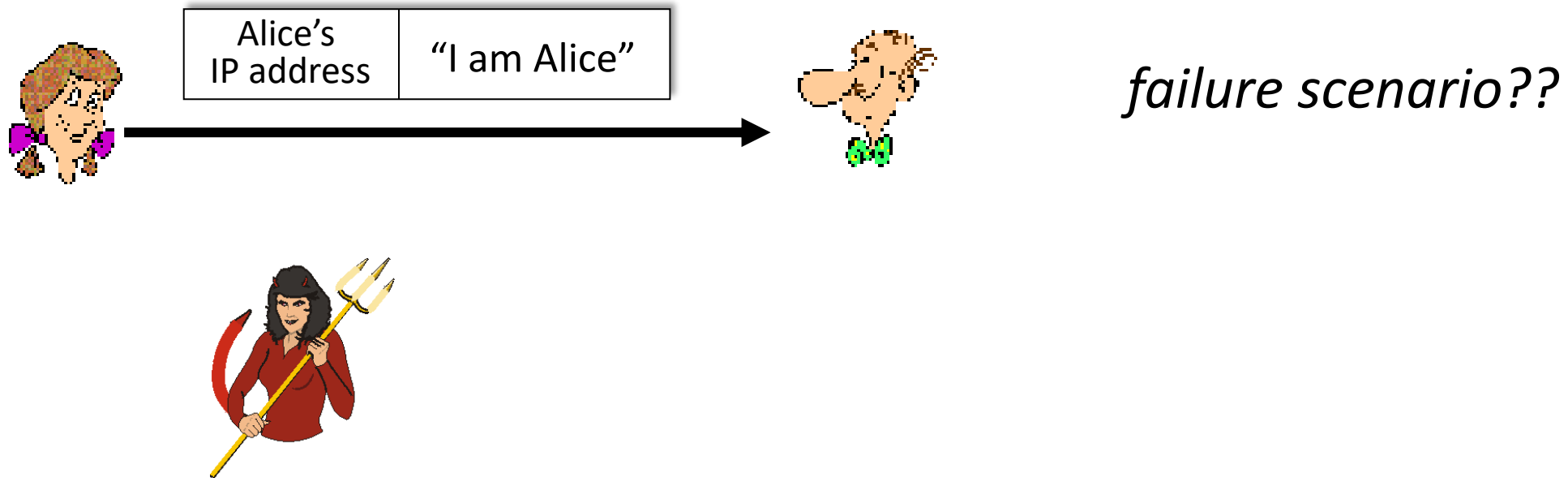
*in a network, Bob
can not “see”
Alice, so Trudy
simply declares
herself to be Alice*



Authentication: another try

Goal: Bob wants Alice to “prove” her identity to him

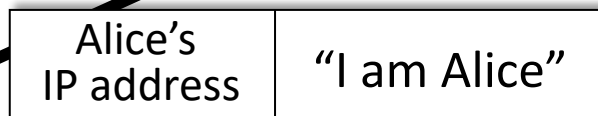
Protocol ap2.0: Alice says “I am Alice” in an IP packet containing her source IP address



Authentication: another try

Goal: Bob wants Alice to “prove” her identity to him

Protocol ap2.0: Alice says “I am Alice” in an IP packet containing her source IP address

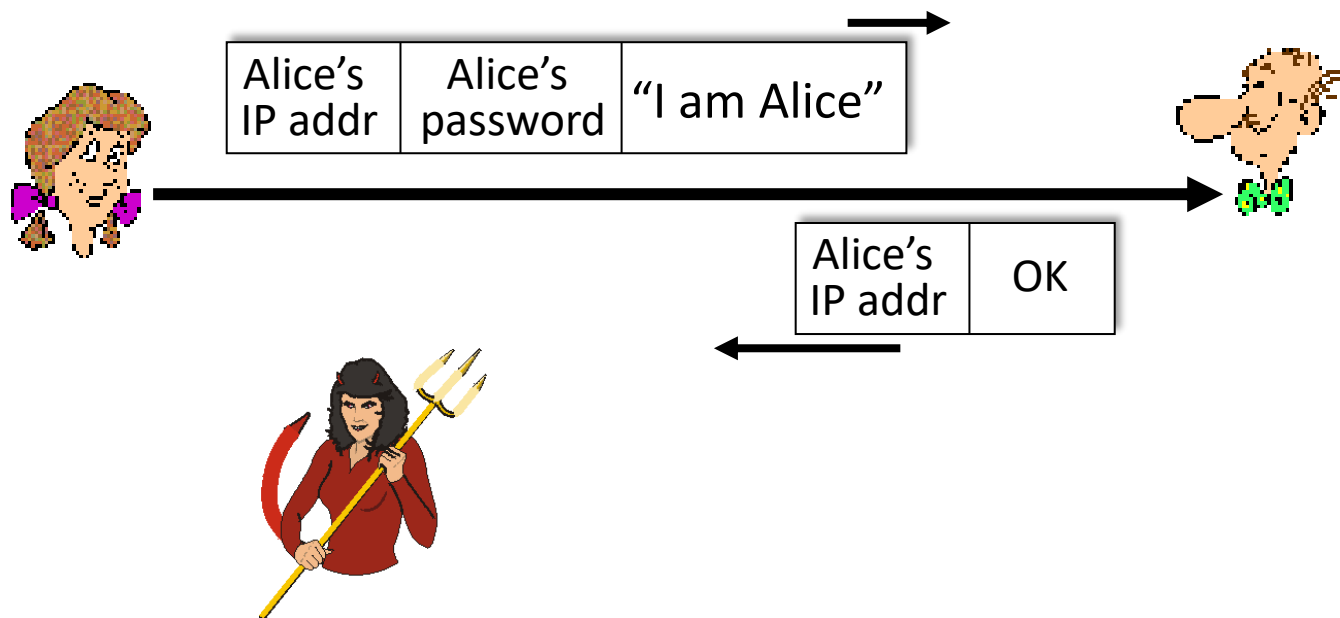


*Trudy can create
a packet “spoofing”
Alice’s address*

Authentication: a third try

Goal: Bob wants Alice to “prove” her identity to him

Protocol ap3.0: Alice says “I am Alice” Alice says “I am Alice” and sends her secret password to “prove” it.

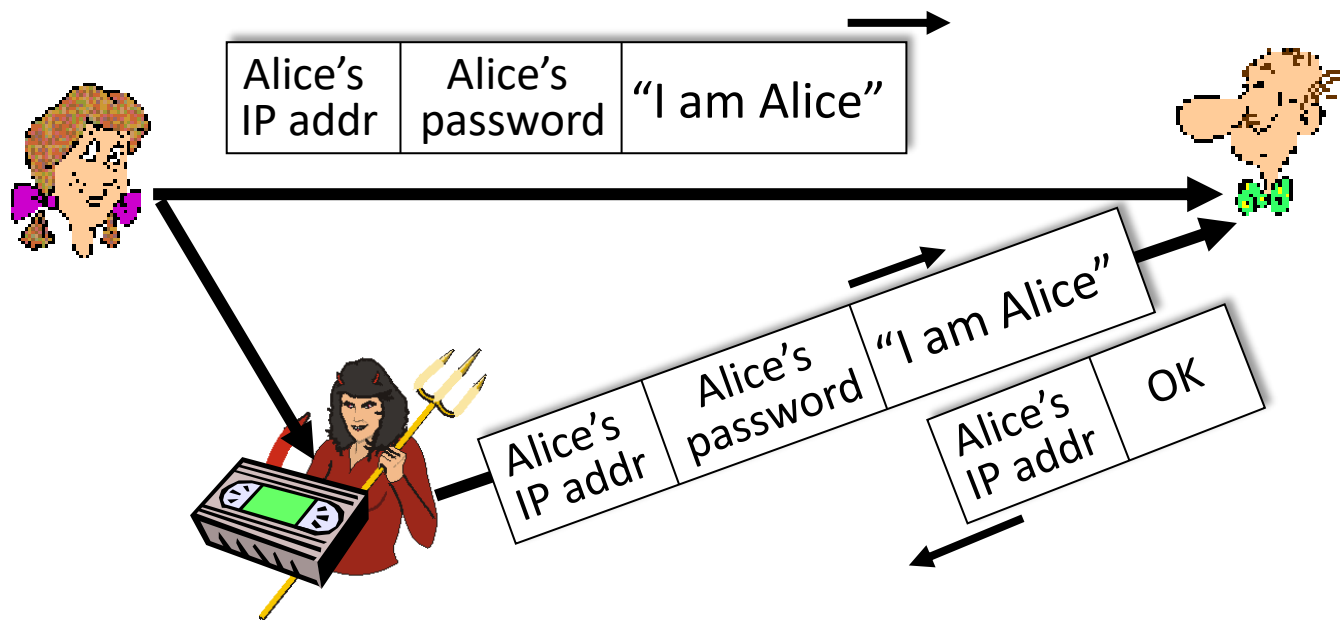


failure scenario??

Authentication: a third try

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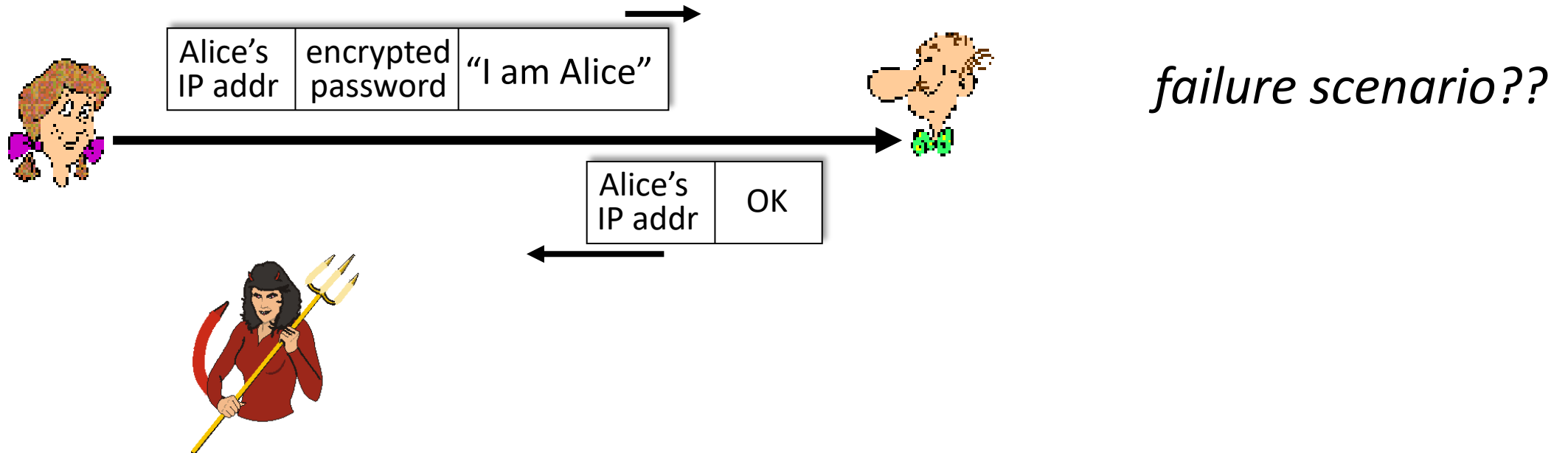


*playback attack:
Trudy records
Alice's packet
and later
plays it back to Bob*

Authentication: a modified third try

Goal: Bob wants Alice to “prove” her identity to him

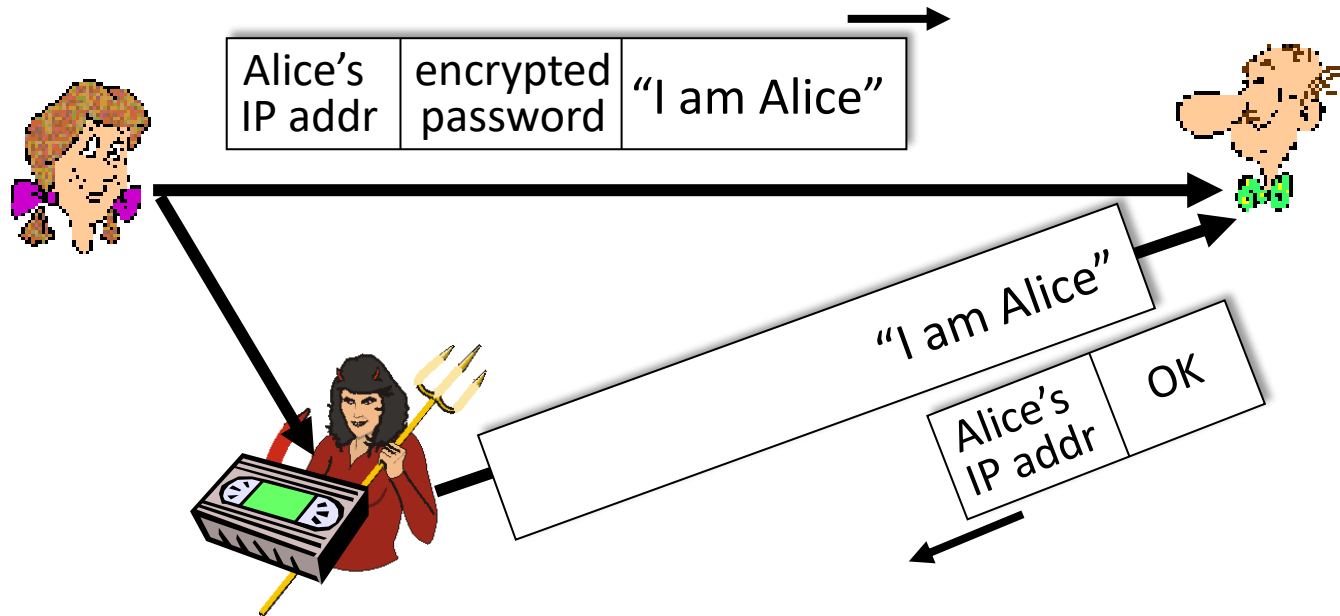
Protocol ap3.0: Alice says “I am Alice” Alice says “I am Alice” and sends her encrypted secret password to “prove” it.



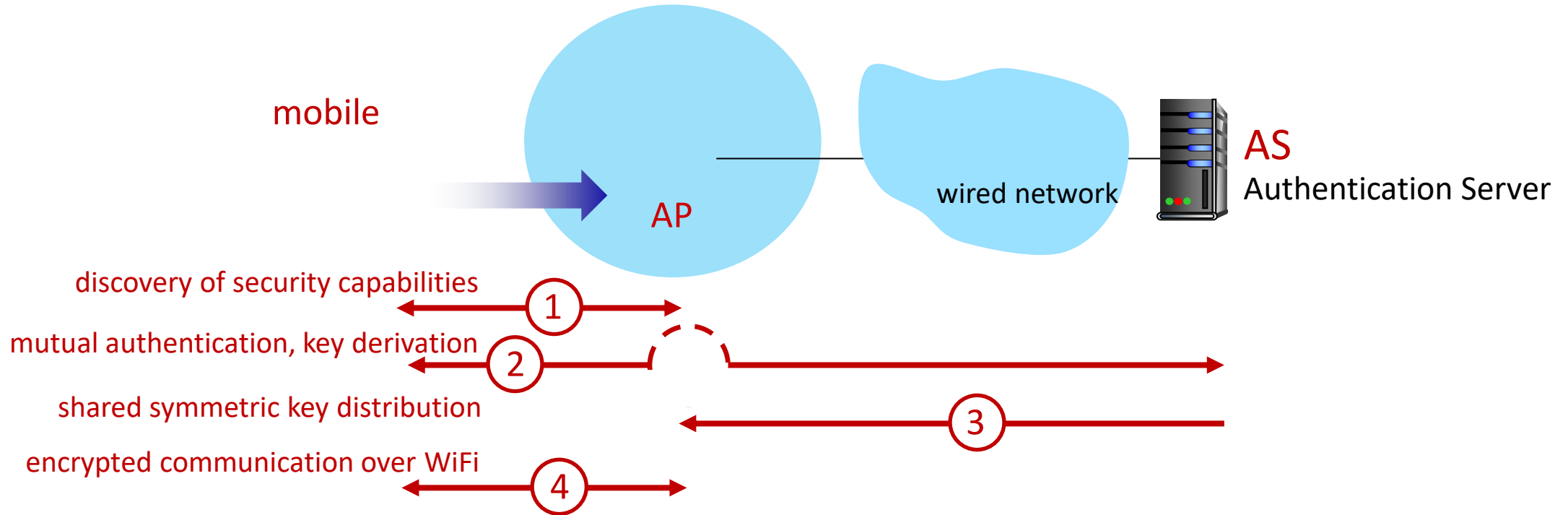
Authentication: a modified third try

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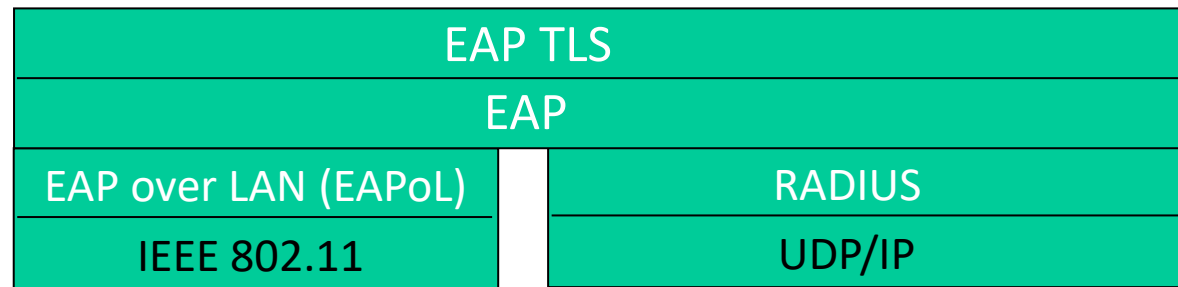
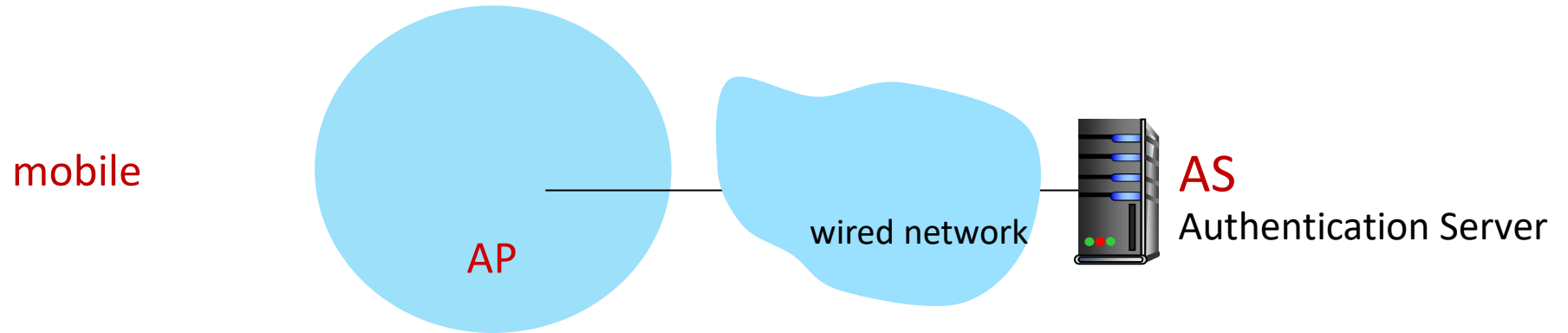


802.11: authentication, encryption



- ④ encrypted communication between mobile and remote host via AP
- same key derived at mobile, AS
 - AS informs AP of the shared symmetric session

802.11: authentication, encryption



- Extensible Authentication Protocol (EAP) [RFC 3748] defines end-to-end request/response protocol between mobile device, AS

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- **Security in wireless and mobile networks**
 - 802.11 (WiFi)
 - 4G/5G
- Operational security: firewalls and IDS



Authentication, encryption in 4G LTE



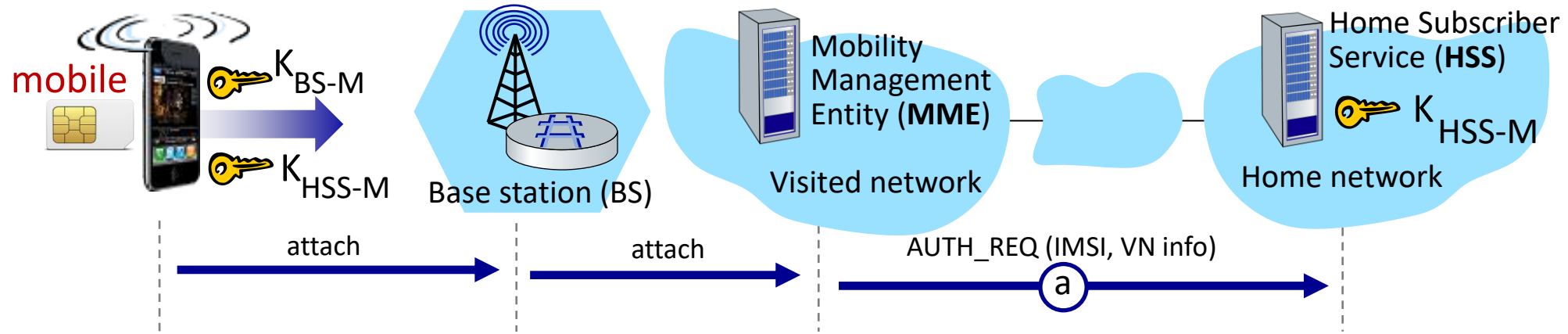
- arriving mobile must:
 - associate with BS: (establish) communication over 4G wireless link
 - authenticate itself to network, and authenticate network
- notable differences from WiFi
 - mobile's SIMcard provides global identity, contains shared keys
 - services in visited network depend on (paid) service subscription in home network

Authentication, encryption in 4G LTE



- mobile, BS use derived session key K_{BS-M} to encrypt communications over 4G link
- MME in visited network + HSS in home network, together play role of WiFi AS
 - ultimate authenticator is HSS
 - trust and business relationship between visited and home networks

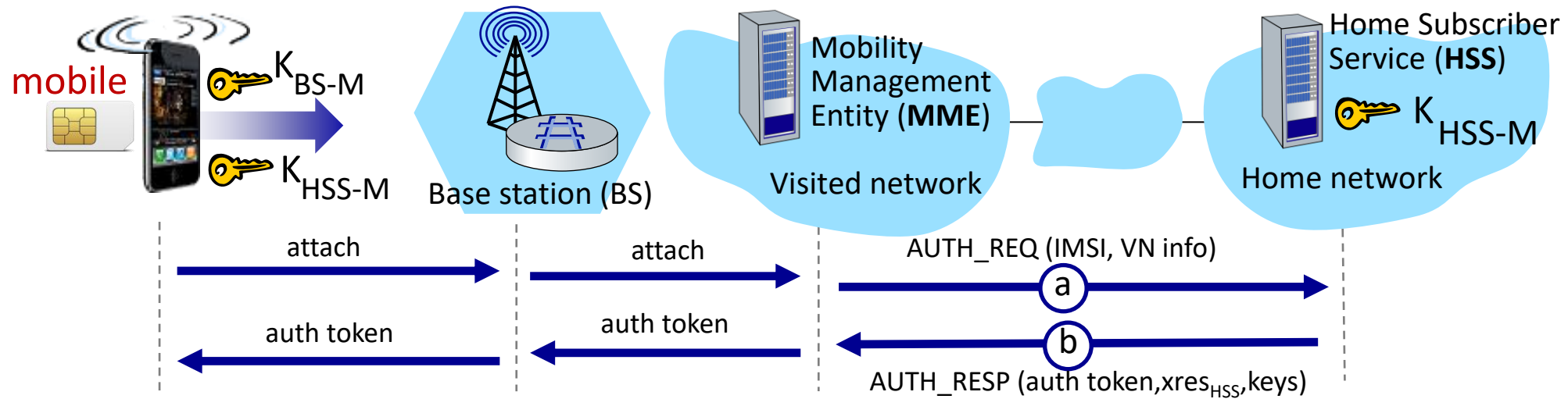
Authentication, encryption in 4G LTE



Ⓐ authentication request to home network HSS

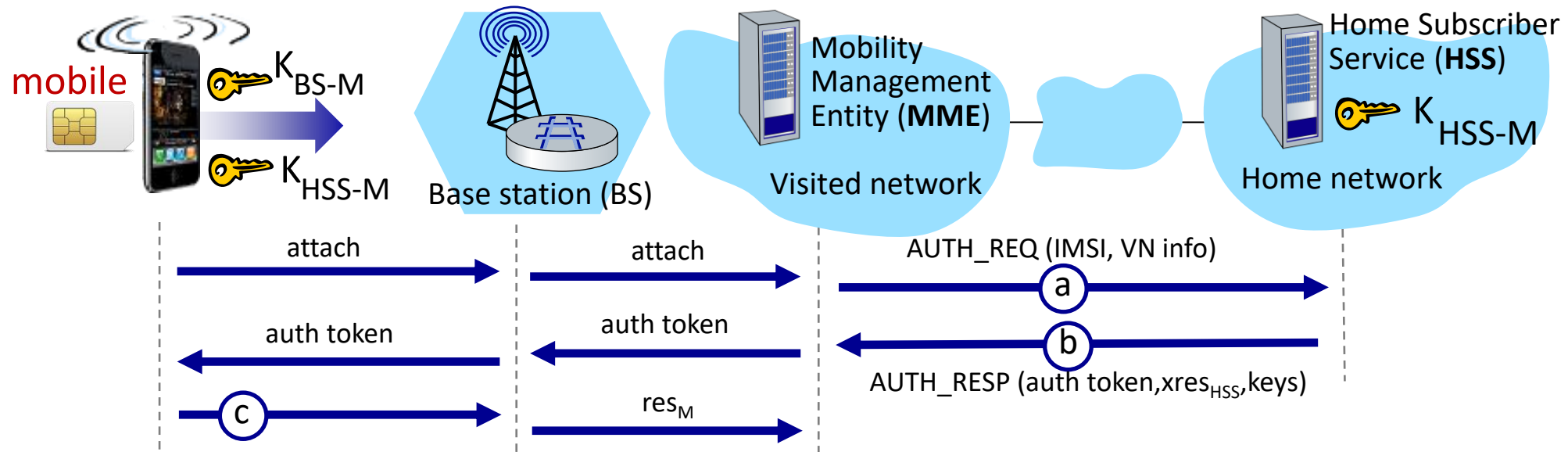
- mobile sends attach message (containing its IMSI, visited network info) relayed from BS to visited MME to home HSS
- IMSI identifies mobile's home network

Authentication, encryption in 4G LTE



- ② HSS use shared-in-advance secret key, K_{HSS-M} , to derive authentication token, *auth_token*, and expected authentication response token, $xres_{HSS}$
- *auth_token* contains info encrypted by HSS using K_{HSS-M} , allowing mobile to know that whoever computed *auth_token* knows shared-in-advance secret
 - mobile has authenticated network
 - visited HSS keeps $xres_{HSS}$ for later use

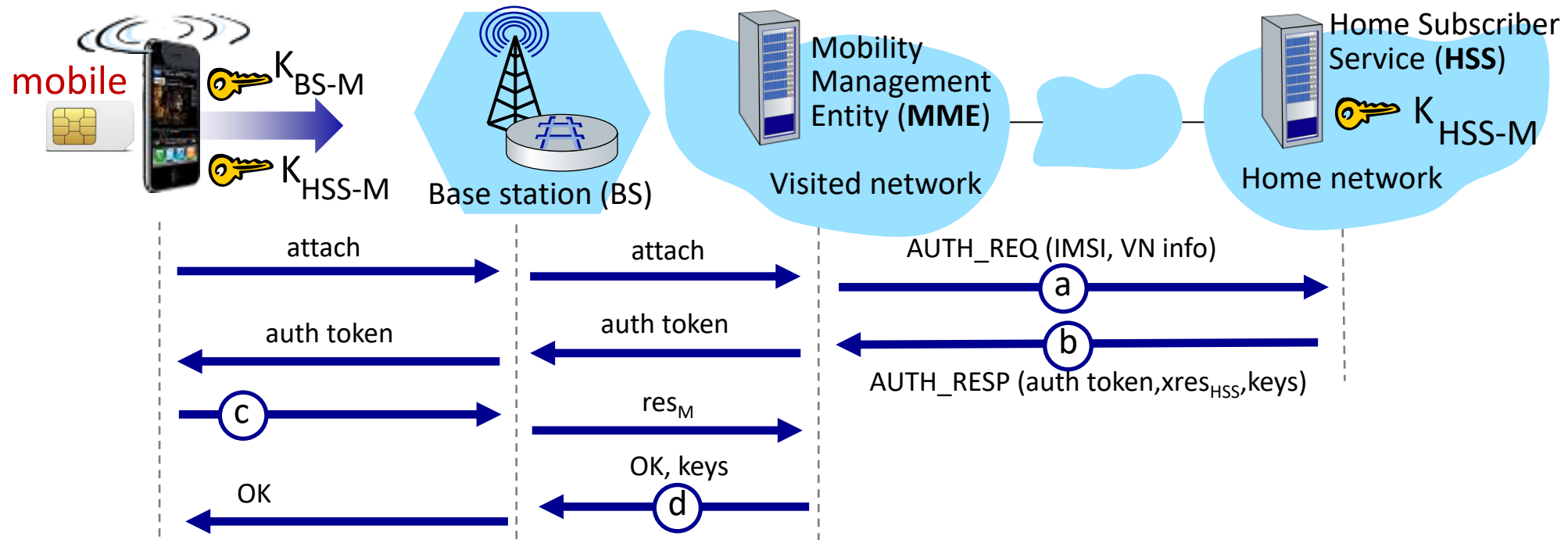
Authentication, encryption in 4G LTE



© authentication response from mobile:

- mobile computes res_M using its secret key to make same cryptographic calculation that HSS made to compute $xres_{HSS}$ and sends res_M to MME

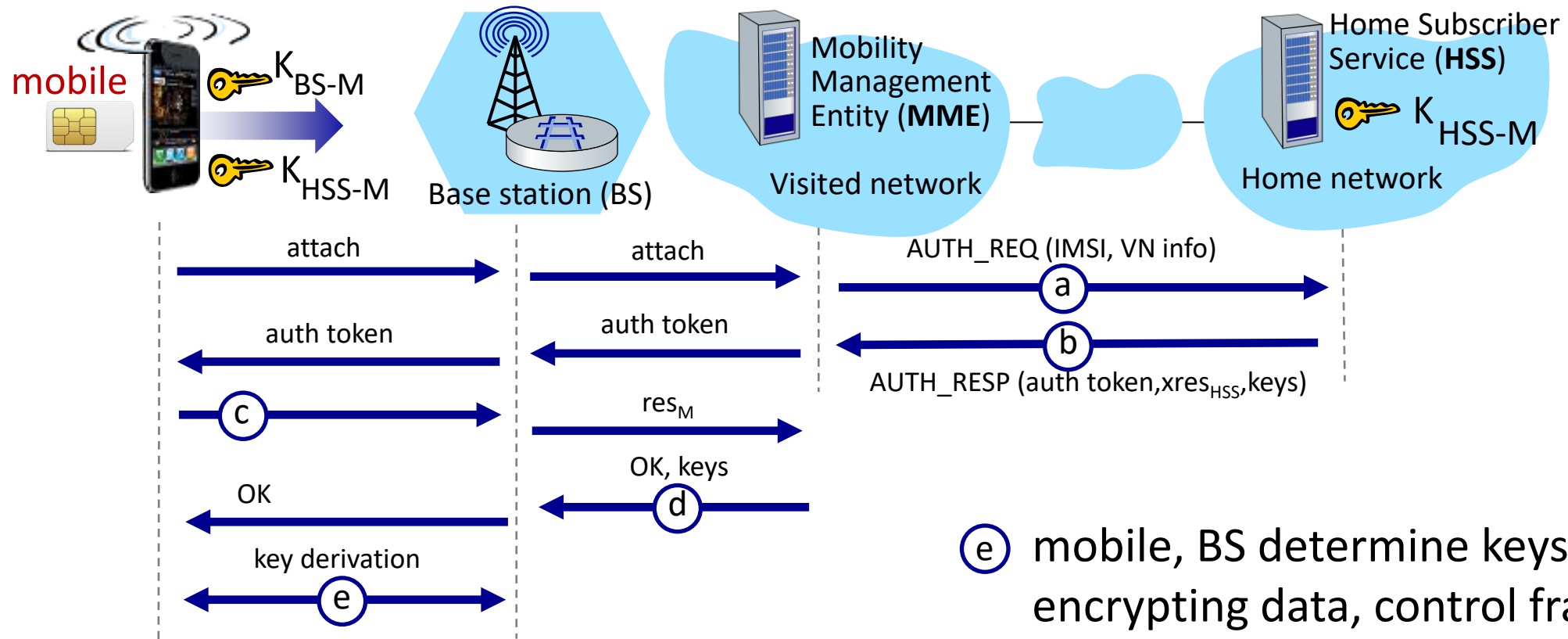
Authentication, encryption in 4G LTE



④ mobile is authenticated by network:

- MME compares mobile-computed value of res_M with the HSS-computed value of $xres_{HSS}$. If they match, mobile is authenticated ! (why?)
- MME informs BS that mobile is authenticated, generates keys for BS

Authentication, encryption in 4G LTE



- ⑤ mobile, BS determine keys for encrypting data, control frames over 4G wireless channel
- AES can be used

Authentication, encryption: from 4G to 5G

- **4G:** MME in visited network makes authentication decision
- **5G:** home network provides authentication decision
 - visited MME plays “middleman” role but can still reject
- **4G:** uses shared-in-advance keys
- **5G:** keys not shared in advance for IoT
- **4G:** device IMSI transmitted in cleartext to BS
- **5G:** public key crypto used to encrypt IMSI

Chapter 8 outline

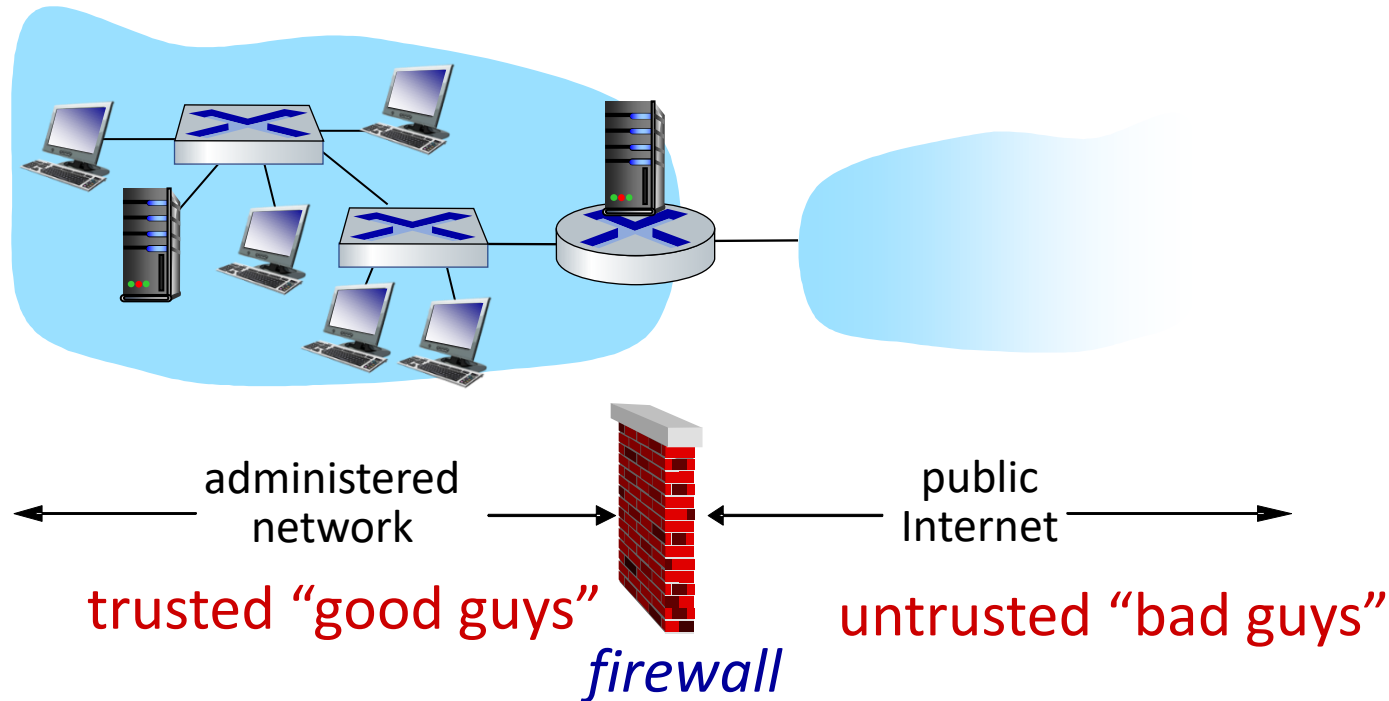
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Firewalls

firewall

isolates organization's internal network from larger Internet, allowing some packets to pass, blocking others



Firewalls: why

prevent denial of service attacks:

- SYN flooding: attacker establishes many bogus TCP connections, no resources left for “real” connections

prevent illegal modification/access of internal data

- e.g., attacker replaces CIA’s homepage with something else

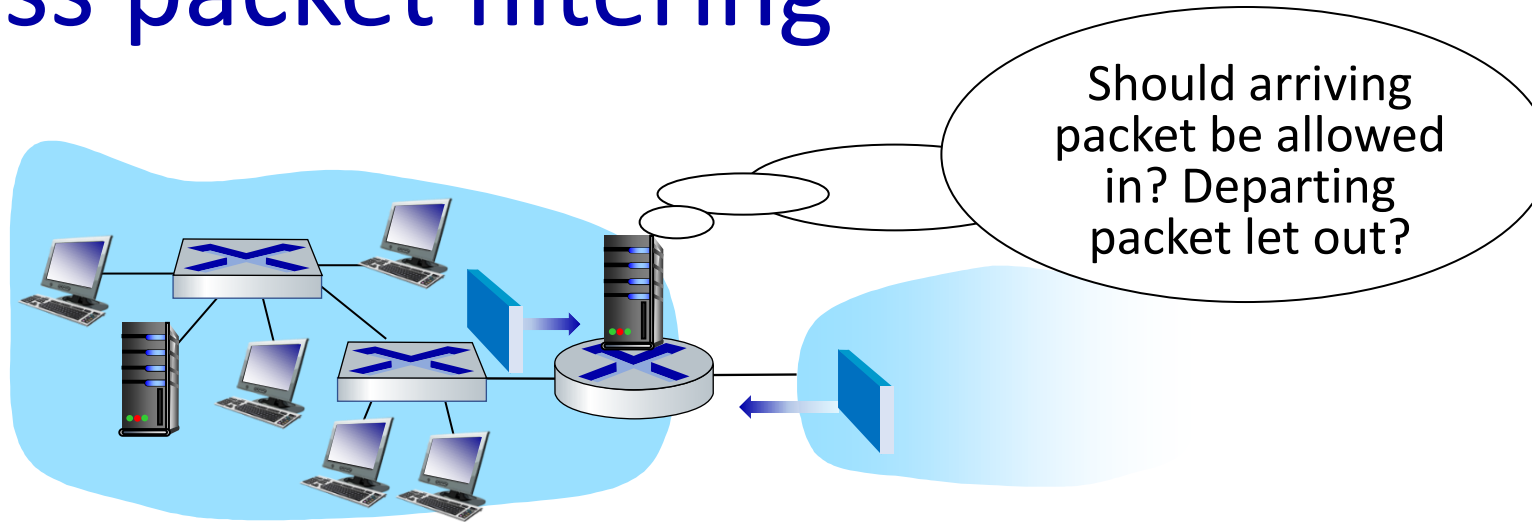
allow only authorized access to inside network

- set of authenticated users/hosts

three types of firewalls:

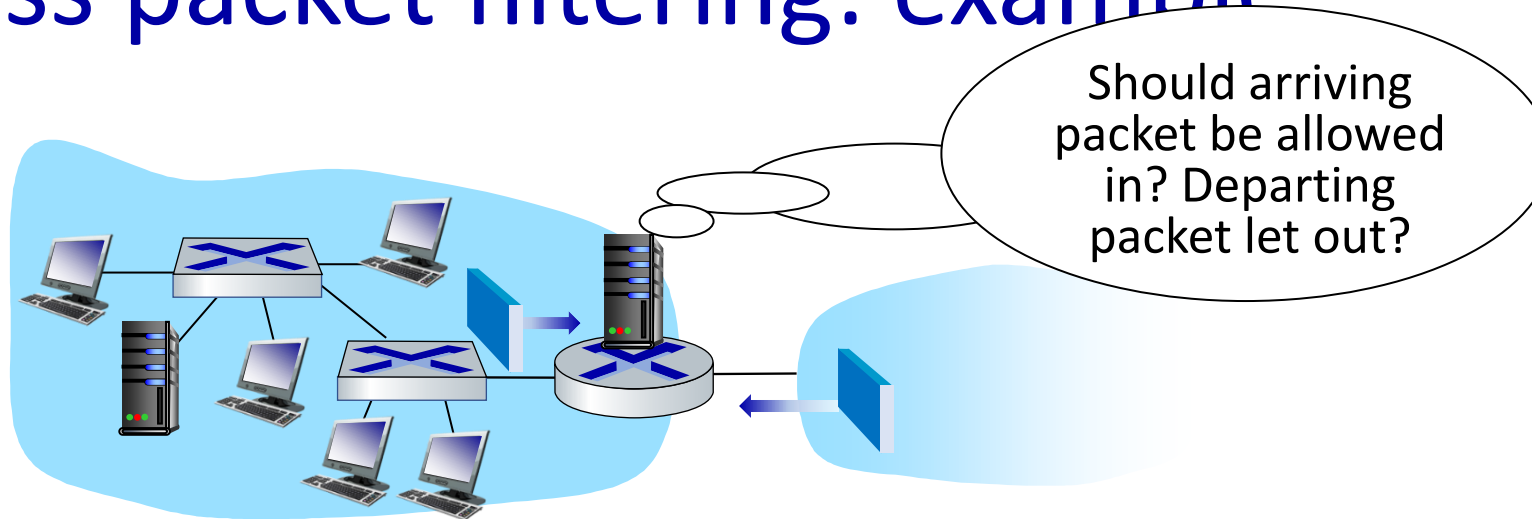
- stateless packet filters
- stateful packet filters
- application gateways

Stateless packet filtering



- internal network connected to Internet via router **firewall**
- filters **packet-by-packet**, decision to forward/drop packet based on:
 - source IP address, destination IP address
 - TCP/UDP source, destination port numbers
 - ICMP message type
 - TCP SYN, ACK bits

Stateless packet filtering: example



- **example 1:** block incoming and outgoing datagrams with IP protocol field = 17 and with either source or dest port = 23
 - **result:** all incoming, outgoing UDP flows and telnet connections are blocked
- **example 2:** block inbound TCP segments with ACK=0
 - **result:** prevents external clients from making TCP connections with internal clients, but allows internal clients to connect to outside

Stateless packet filtering: more examples

Policy	Firewall Setting
no outside Web access	drop all outgoing packets to any IP address, port 80
no incoming TCP connections, except those for institution's public Web server only.	drop all incoming TCP SYN packets to any IP except 130.207.244.203, port 80
prevent Web-radios from eating up the available bandwidth.	drop all incoming UDP packets - except DNS and router broadcasts.
prevent your network from being used for a smurf DoS attack.	drop all ICMP packets going to a "broadcast" address (e.g. 130.207.255.255)
prevent your network from being tracerouted	drop all outgoing ICMP TTL expired traffic

Access Control Lists

ACL: table of rules, applied top to bottom to incoming packets: (action, condition) pairs: looks like OpenFlow forwarding (Ch. 4)!

action	source address	dest address	protocol	source port	dest port	flag bit
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	TCP	> 1023	80	any
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	TCP	80	> 1023	ACK
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	UDP	> 1023	53	---
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	UDP	53	> 1023	----
deny	all	all	all	all	all	all

Stateful packet filtering

- *stateless packet filter*: heavy handed tool
 - admits packets that “make no sense,” e.g., dest port = 80, ACK bit set, even though no TCP connection established:

action	source address	dest address	protocol	source port	dest port	flag bit
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	TCP	80	> 1023	ACK

- *stateful packet filter*: track status of every TCP connection
 - track connection setup (SYN), teardown (FIN): determine whether incoming, outgoing packets “makes sense”
 - timeout inactive connections at firewall: no longer admit packets

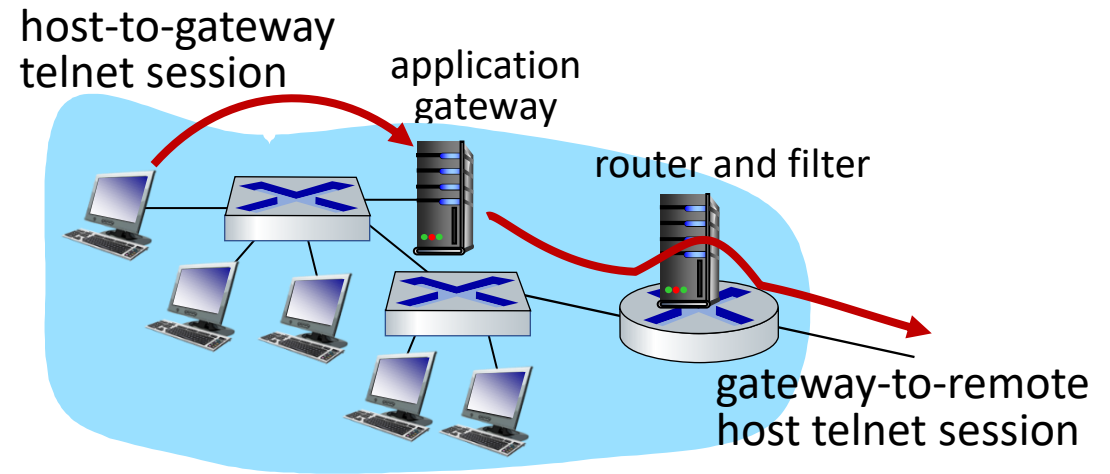
Stateful packet filtering

ACL augmented to indicate need to check connection state table before admitting packet

action	source address	dest address	proto	source port	dest port	flag bit	check connection
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	TCP	> 1023	80	any	
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	TCP	80	> 1023	ACK	X
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	UDP	> 1023	53	---	
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	UDP	53	> 1023	----	X
deny	all	all	all	all	all	all	

Application gateways

- filter packets on application data as well as on IP/TCP/UDP fields.
- *example:* allow select internal users to telnet outside



1. require all telnet users to telnet through gateway.
2. for authorized users, gateway sets up telnet connection to dest host
 - gateway relays data between 2 connections
3. router filter blocks all telnet connections not originating from gateway

Limitations of firewalls, gateways

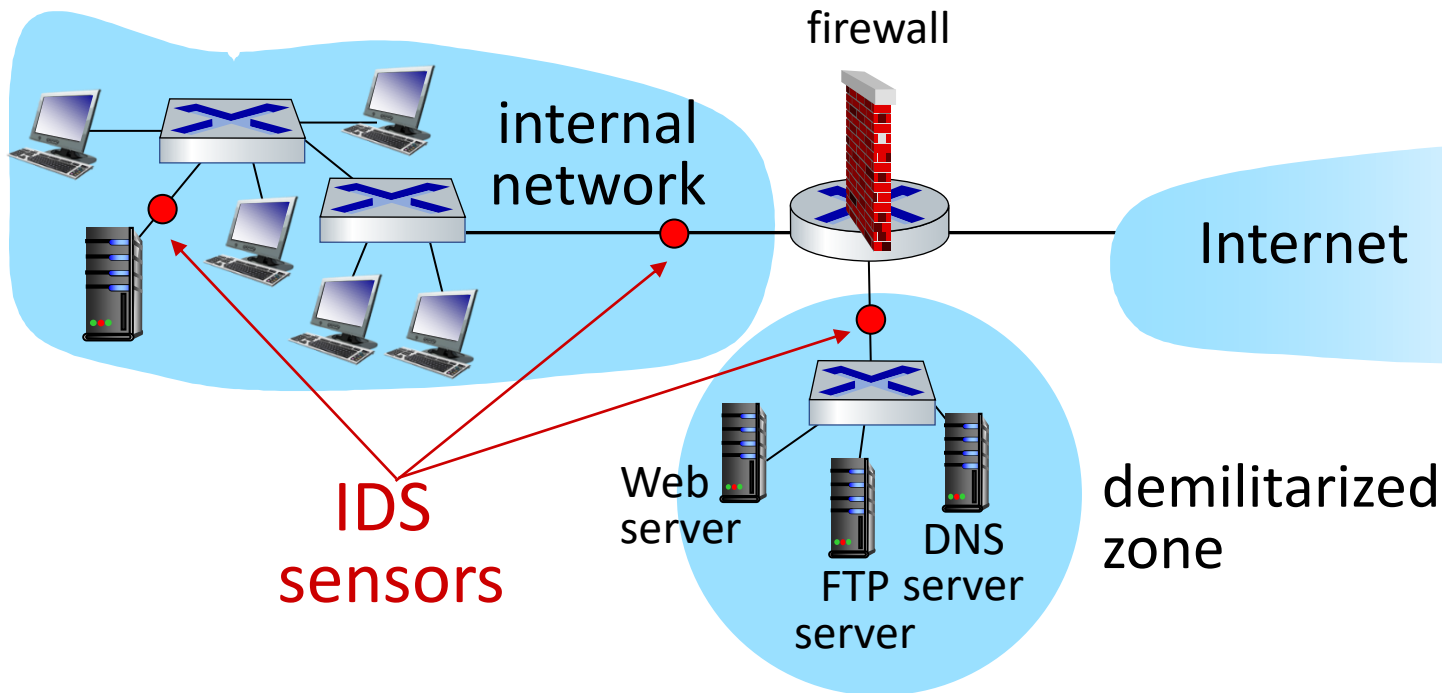
- **IP spoofing:** router can't know if data “really” comes from claimed source
- if multiple apps need special treatment, each has own app. gateway
- client software must know how to contact gateway
 - e.g., must set IP address of proxy in Web browser
- filters often use all or nothing policy for UDP
- *tradeoff:* degree of communication with outside world, level of security
- many highly protected sites still suffer from attacks

Intrusion detection systems

- packet filtering:
 - operates on TCP/IP headers only
 - no correlation check among sessions
- IDS: intrusion detection system
 - deep packet inspection: look at packet contents (e.g., check character strings in packet against database of known virus, attack strings)
 - examine correlation among multiple packets
 - port scanning
 - network mapping
 - DoS attack

Intrusion detection systems

multiple IDSs: different types of checking at different locations



Network Security (summary)

basic techniques.....

- cryptography (symmetric and public key)
- message integrity
- end-point authentication

.... used in many different security scenarios

- secure email
- secure transport (TLS)
- IP sec
- 802.11, 4G/5G

operational security: firewalls and IDS

